PHI DELTA KAPPAN OCTOBER 1979

DIVOKY

Managing Education's Era of Decline

The Dissemination Dilemma — BAIN/GROSECLOSE • Educating Your Child at Home — BUMSTEAD • Academic Freedom in the Public Schools — WOODS • Educating for Global Understanding — ANDERSON, BARNET

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Is Academic Freedom Dead in Public Schools?

by L. B. Woods

The number of book titles identified as objectionable during the past decade has increased at an alarming rate. Too many censorship attempts are successful.

Because, historically, researchers were often persecuted for disagreeing with "accepted truths," academic freedom is often considered a prerequisite for the advancement of knowledge. However, since public schools were not established to do original research, the historic precedent of academic freedom does not apply to public schools.[1]

Despite the above quote, a precedent does exist for the role of public school teachers as arbiters of political, religious, and moral beliefs and behaviors, a fact that certainly argues for the protection of academic freedom. Political indoctrination (via civics) has been a goal in public schools since the early part of the twentieth century.[2] Perhaps this indoctrination was not as pervasive as the religious and moral training expected of most early school systems, but it developed a mentality of basic trust in the American political system that many now believe was neither healthy nor warranted.

In 1962, shortly after the New York State Board of Regents directed school district principals to have a prayer "said aloud by each class in the presence of a teacher at the beginning of each school day," the parents of 10 children brought action in a New York state court "insisting that use of this official prayer in the public schools was contrary to the beliefs, religions, or religious practices of both themselves and their children."* The New York Court of Appeals upheld the lower court's decision in favor of the regents. The U.S. Supreme Court reversed the decision, the majority opinion stating that the "use of the regents' prayer in its public school system breaches the constitutional wall of separation between church and state. The constitutional prohibition against laws respecting an establishment of religion must at least mean that in this country it is no part of the business of government to compose official prayers for any group of the American people to recite as part of a religious program carried on by government." Private secular institutions were, of course, not affected by this decision.

Since much of the moral training imparted to students by schools has been rooted in religious dogma, the Supreme Court decision would seem to indicate a dilution of moral training. Since morals change from one generation to the next, and not entirely as a result of religious influences, the degree to which this so-called modern degeneration of morals is due to the Supreme Court decision would be difficult to determine.

We are presently left with school systems that still operate in the areas of politics and morals. They debate a new patriotism, including the responsibility for keeping a watchful eye on government, and they investigate the new morality in American society.

Although other forces can be identified that affect censorship in America's educational institutions, morality (including objections relating to obscenity, sex and nudity, and language), politics, racism, and religion form the basis of most censorship attacks. Yet because the world is changing, so is the literature to which children are exposed. "Children's literature is facing the issues of cruelty, drug abuse, race relations, and social problems. . . . [Y]oung adults . . . want literature relevant to living in contemporary society."[3] These materials sometimes upset teachers, librarians, administrators, parents, citizens, and students; they provide a fertile ground for criticism. A four-letter word, a reference to sex, racist material, or material that is too liberal or represents "dangerous" political opinions — all are considered suspect. And the battle continues for the removal of these materials so that they cannot contaminate youths who may not possess the strength of character necessary to reject "unacceptable" ideas.

This brings us to a definition of censorship: the attempt to suppress materials presenting certain viewpoints, or to exclude those viewpoints from library and classroom materials. What are some viewpoints censors have deemed improper in recent times?

> Robin Hood was considered communistic, Tarzan was living with Jane without benefit of clergy. . . , and Huckleberry Finn was a racist. Ferdinand the Bull was branded pro-Franco and anti-Franco, a Communist, an anarchist, a manic-depressive, and . . . "schizoid."[4]

The Board of Education in Waterbury, Connecticut, refused to allow Dick Gregory to speak at the town's high school. The song "Dixie" and the Confederate flag are condemned as symbols of oppression.

> *The Inner-City Mother Goose* was criticized for its street language and *Sylvester and the Magic Pebble* because the animal chosen to illustrate a policeman was a pig. . . . *Nicodemus and the Houn' Dog* . . . pictured blacks as foolish, silly, and not too bright. *Dinky Hocker Shoots Smack* drew attention to its title, which seems to relate to drugs, but is misleading. . . . *Little Black Sambo* was criticized because Sambo is mistakenly identified as a Negro rather than an Indian and described in a way that makes him appear stupid.[5]

Snow White "has suppressed young girls for countless generations."[5] The list is endless.

Between 1966 and 1975 the Office of Intellectual Freedom of the American Library Association reported over 910 censorship cases that occurred in U.S. educational institutions. Forty were on the elementary level, 77 on the junior high level, and 386 on the high school level. Sixty-four affected all levels, K-12. Schools accounted for 62% of all educational attacks, with public libraries and colleges and universities accounting for the remainder.

Approximately two-thirds of all attempts were successful, resulting in the banning of materials from schools or, in the case of a few, restricting access to only those students who could get special permission. Only one-third of the attempts were unsuccessful, i.e., did not result in

*The prayer read: "Almighty God, we acknowledge our dependence upon Thee, and we beg Thy blessings upon us, our parents, our teachers, and our country." [*Engel* v. *Vitale*, 370 U.S. 421 (1962)]

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the banning or suppression of materials. On the school level, 1,063 books, 37 magazines, 78 newspapers (primarily campus and underground), 24 speakers, 18 students, 32 teachers, and 299 textbooks, along with 34 other categories of materials, were attacked. The other categories included art works, essays, exhibits, films, plays, poems, recordings, songs, and school subjects.

During the decade of 1966 to 1975 the number of censored items increased 370%. Although the number of cases reported leveled off in the Seventies (after large increases were noted during the latter part of the 1960s), the number of items censored per attempt increased dramatically. Organizations such as Citizens for Decent Literature, the Concerned Parents Committee, the John Birch Society, the American Legion, the NAACP, and the PTA made known their objections, and these objections were noted by other organizations. Long lists of books were presented to school authorities as "objectionable," and sometimes these lists resulted in purges of libraries and classrooms. Where teachers or librarians resisted, they were often pressured to resign. Where they didn't resist, pressure to resign came because they were considered to have exercised poor judgment in selection of materials.

The most-censored book of the decade was *The Catcher in the Rye*, with 41 attempts. Yet this young adult title had not been read by a number of objectors, who admittedly based their complaints on the book's outdated reputation.

Sixteen books received six or more censorship attempts each. All of these were considered objectionable on elementary and/or secondary levels (some on other levels as well), and are listed in the accompanying table, along with the reviews they received when published.

The figures reveal that 53% of the reviews were favorable, 39% mixed, and less than 8% unfavorable.

> Overall, the reviews citing censored books indicate that . . . most books used in libraries and classrooms were of high quality (textbooks not being included in this part of the study). . . . It can be noted, however, that titles proven by time often did not receive outstanding reviews at the time of their publication.
>
> The effect on the curriculum, then, is to remove items of high quality from use by students and library patrons when censorship cases are successful. The ideas contained in these works are no longer available, the curriculum is changed, with certain areas of human knowledge altered or deleted.[5]

Considering the high quality of the materials subjected to attack in public schools and removed as a result, the principle of academic freedom as it applies to public school education should be reexamined. Until now, court decisions have only partially addressed the problem. Although student attempts to publish controversial opinions in student or underground newspapers[6] or to voice political protest by such means as wearing black armbands[7] have been upheld, teachers and librarians have found themselves subjected to double standards. Teachers or librarians who have refused to remove items from classrooms or libraries have been fired in some instances, and courts have ruled that school boards have the power to place a book on library shelves or to refuse to do so.[8] Insubordination becomes the issue rather than censorship. In some cases, where the firing has been based on protesting the removal of materials, however, First Amendment rights have been violated, and an almost airtight court case has been made for the teacher or librarian.[9] This has reserved the right of trustees and administrators to decide what materials may or may not be allowed into classrooms or libraries, but does not necessarily give them the right to remove the "objectionable" items once they are there.

In a case involving a school board decision to remove a poetry anthology titled *Male and Female Under 18* from the Chelsea (Massachusetts) High School library (a parent had objected to the language in a poem written by a 15-year-old New York City girl, "The City to a Young Girl"), U.S. District Court Judge Joseph Tauro handed down a decision in favor of the school librarian who had contested the board's decision. In his decision, dated 5 July 1978, Judge Tauro wrote:

> The board acted on the assumption that language offensive to it and some parents had no place in the educational system. With the greatest respect to them, *their sensibilities are not the full measure of what is proper education.*
>
> The board claims an absolute right to remove this poem from the shelves of the library. It has no such right. And compelling policy considerations argue against any public authority having such an unreviewable power of censorship. If this work may be removed by a committee hostile to its language and theme, then the precedent is set for the removal of any other work. The prospect of successive school boards "sanitizing" the

Table 1. List of Most-Censored Items in Educational Institutions in the U.S. and Their Reviews, 1966-75

Title	Number of Censorship Attempts	Reviews		
		Favorable	Mixed	Unfavorable
The Catcher in the Rye (1951)	41	7	5	2
Soul on Ice (1968)	20	8	1	0
Manchild in the Promised Land (1965)	15	5	4	1
Go Ask Alice (1971)	14	2	0	0
Catch-22 (1961)	10	3	7	2
The Grapes of Wrath (1939)	9	7	6	0
Of Mice and Men (1937)	7	6	2	2
Slaughterhouse Five (1969)	7	6	5	2
To Kill a Mockingbird (1960)	7	5	6	0
Down These Mean Streets (1967)	6	9	2	0
The Godfather (1969)	6	4	3	1
Inner-City Mother Goose (1970)	6			
The Learning Tree (1963)	6	3	1	0
Lord of the Flies (1955)	6	4	6	0
Nigger (1964)	6	3	5	0
Sylvester and the Magic Pebble (1969)	6			

school library of views divergent from their own is alarming.

What is at stake here is the right to read and be exposed to controversial thoughts, a valuable right subject to First Amendment protection. The most effective antidote to the poison of mindless orthodoxy is ready access to a broad sweep of ideas. There is no danger in such exposure; the danger is in mind control.[10] (Emphasis added)

A teacher or librarian faced with a censorship issue may face dismissal regardless of whether he obeys or disobeys an order to remove an "objectionable" item. Perhaps the most logical course of action for educators placed in this situation is either to go to court (as the Chelsea librarian did in order to preserve her job), an oftentimes expensive undertaking, or to exercise First Amendment rights to the fullest, never admitting in any way that poor judgment was practiced by any but those who would ban a work or an idea.

Teachers and librarians have more sources of support for their efforts to combat censorship than they may be aware of. The Committee on Intellectual Freedom of the American Library Association (ALA), the National Council of Teachers of English, these organizations' state affiliates, the ALA's Office of Intellectual Freedom, and, most important, the American Civil Liberties Union, are all willing to support court tests of censorship, either financially or with advice and counsel. Lesser sources of support may come from state libraries or the faculties of universities, especially library schools and English departments.

Since educational institutions are facing the issues of pertinence in curricular design, censorship is likely to continue to focus on such areas as morality, politics, racism, and religion. The number of titles identified as objectionable during the past decade has increased at an alarming rate and gives no indication of tapering off. Unless courts fully extend the principle of academic freedom to the school level, teachers and librarians will be faced with the possibility that only the most innocuous and undistinguished curricular materials will be permissible. And somebody somewhere will find even these materials unsuitable. This assessment may lead educators to wonder where censorship ends. I cannot say. In any case, it hasn't ended and probably won't. Most certainly, the influence of censors will not end if educators ignore the problem under the mistaken belief that it will go away or will not affect them.

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1. Richard M. Blankenburg, "Does Academic Freedom Apply to Public School Teachers?," *Educational Forum*, January 1971, pp. 153-56.
2. Daniel Tanner and Laurel Tanner, *Curriculum Development* (New York: Macmillan, 1975), pp. 217, 218.
3. L. B. Woods, "Censorship Involving Educational Institutions in the United States, 1966-75" (Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin, 1977), p. 16.
4. Ibid., p. 20.
5. Ibid., p. 130.
6. *Sullivan* v. *Houston Independent School District*, 307 F. Supp. 1328 (1969).
7. *Tinker* v. *Des Moines Independent School District*, 393 U.S. 503 (1969).
8. Alan H. Levine, " 'Impressionable Minds' . . . 'Forbidden Subjects'. A Case in Point," *School Library Journal*, February 1973, pp. 19-24.
9. Betty E. Sinowitz, "The Academic Freedom Story Today," *Today's Education*, November 1972, pp. 41-43.
10. "New Court Decisions," *United States Law Week*, 1 August 1978, pp. 2053, 2054. □

Midwest Schools Face Shortages of Good Teachers

by Arni T. Dunathan

There is no surplus of* employable *teachers, say a majority of the 936 superintendents in this major study, and they ask teacher preparatory institutions to turn out more good candidates.

Many schools in nine Midwest states are facing unexpected teacher shortages, and a critical shortage may arrive in two to four years, according to 936 district superintendents responding to a survey made in April by the University of Missouri at Columbia. Nearly half the superintendents characterized the current teacher supply as a shortage; only one in five perceived a surplus. Comments volunteered by over half the superintendents indicated that good teachers are scarce and that teacher training programs need to increase production now to prevent a crisis by the early Eighties.

Interestingly enough, enrollments appear to be up, defying the popular impression. Increasing enrollments — spread evenly across the urban, suburban, and rural districts — characterized the random sample composed of half the districts in Missouri, Kansas, Illinois, Nebraska, Tennessee, Iowa, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Kentucky. Of the 1,409 superintendents queried, 66% responded in time to be included in the analysis. Fewer than one-fourth of the districts reported decreased enrollments during the last five years. One-third reported increased teaching vacancies, while one-fourth reported decreases.

Hardest hit by shortages are rural districts whose growing enrollments,[1] along with more demanding state accreditation and school classification guidelines, are creating new vacancies. At the same time, rural superintendents report, more rigorous certification requirements make it difficult to find applicants with the major and minor combinations small districts need.[2] City superintendents report increasing enrollments and vacancies also, but do not report as many decreases in applications. They report that as supply approaches demand, less-qualified and less-desirable applicants make up the bulk of those applying. It seems that good new teachers are scarce everywhere.

The shortage and surplus picture by certification area for the nine-state region is presented in Figure 1. Overall, the areas of greatest surplus and shortage agree with the most recent National Education Association (NEA) report.[3] In areas where other shortages may be in the offing, the data agree with those reported by the Association for School, College, and University Staffing (ASCUS) and Parker L. Lawlis.[4] In greatest demand are teachers of mathematics; the sciences; vocational and industrial subjects, including agriculture; and special education. In least demand for the present are teachers of social sciences, the elementary grades, and health and physical education.

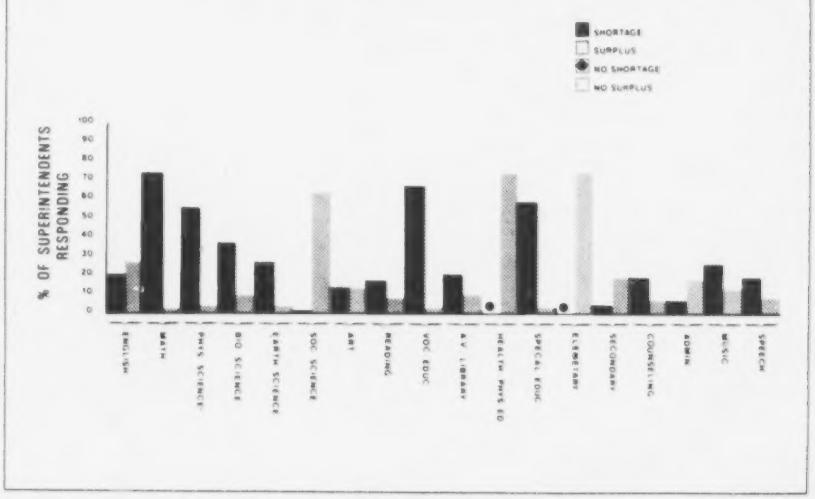
One must ask why superintendents in this region reported shortages when NEA data still indicate large remaining surpluses.* Part of the answer lies in the nature of the sample itself: The region is dominated by small rural districts; 86% of the respondents characterized their districts as rural. Perceived supply may also be affected by the fact that the region is one where new teacher placement is higher than average,[5] where new teacher production has decreased more than average,[6] and where the birthrate has declined by less than half the national average.[7]

These differences are small, however, in comparison with the basic difference between how superintendents define surplus and how NEA calculates it. NEA counts all unemployed teachers as if they were equally probable candidates for all vacancies by specialty. Superintendents distinguish between unemployed and unemployable teachers; of the latter they said (many said it bluntly), "There is a surplus." There is no surplus of what superintendents regard as employable teachers, and they ask that teacher preparatory programs turn out more of them.

When perceived teacher supply (shortage, balance, surplus by certification area) was analyzed in relation to district location (urban, suburban, rural), using chi square, a clearer pattern of the

*See accompanying box.

Figure 1. Nine-State Regional Teacher Supply



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"The predominant scarcity of teachers in all certification areas resides in rural districts within the nine-state region."

location and magnitude of supplies emerged for the nine-state region.

Significant differences at the .01 probability level were attained in supply by location for English/language arts, biological sciences, audiovisual/library, counseling, and music. In each case the major differences between expected and actual frequencies were in the perception of shortage by rural superintendents. Greater numbers of rural superintendents reported shortages than would be expected if distribution had been normal. A smaller but noticeable difference occurred between suburban superintendents' expected and actual responses for surplus in the same certification areas; in each case, suburban superintendents perceived surpluses more often than expected.

Aside from the question of statistical significance, it was interesting to note that regardless of certification area, rural superintendents consistently cited shortages more often than expected. Not once did superintendents in rural districts indicate fewer surpluses than normal distribution would predict.

Both the statistical and empirical pattern is unmistakable: The predominant scarcity of teachers in all certification areas resides in rural districts within the nine-state region.

Numbers did not permit chi square tests for district location versus certification area differences in each state. However, when each state's percentage of surplus and shortage by certification area was compared to the regional average, it was observed that state supplies differed measurably.

Teacher supply in Arkansas approximates the regional pattern, but with a 10% smaller shortage in vocational and special education and a 10% greater shortage in mathematics. Surpluses in Arkansas, according to superintendents (57% return of Arkansas random sample equals 29% of all Arkansas superintendents*), do not differ from the regional average.

Illinois supply is in line with the regional pattern, but surpluses in most areas are 10% to 15% less, according to superintendents (53% return of Illinois random sample equals 27% of all Illinois superintendents). Shortages do not differ from the regional average.

Kansas superintendents (68% return of Kansas random sample equals 34% of all Kansas superintendents) reported a 15% greater shortage of mathematics teachers and a 10% greater shortage of music teachers, along with a 10% smaller shortage in earth science. Surpluses in Kansas do not differ from the regional average.

Iowa superintendents (76% return of the Iowa random sample equals 38% of all Iowa superintendents) reported a 25% greater scarcity in both vocational/industrial education and special education teachers than the regional average. Iowa has a 10% greater surplus of elementary teachers than does the region.

Kentucky (59% return of the Kentucky random sample equals 30% of all Kentucky superintendents) varies considerably in both shortage and surplus from the regional average. Virtually no shortages other than mathematics, science, and special education were reported, and those to a lesser degree than the regional average. Surpluses are greater than elsewhere, with every certification area reportedly 10% to 50% better supplied than the regional average.

Missouri's surpluses approximate the regional average; however, shortages are 10% greater in mathematics and sciences, according to superintendents (82% return of the Missouri sample equals 41% of all Missouri superintendents).

Nebraska superintendents (82% return of the Nebraska random sample equals 41% of the state's superintendents) reported 10% to 15% greater shortages in most areas and a 30% greater shortage in music than the regional average. Surpluses in English/language arts, social science, health/physical education, elementary education, and administration are less than the regional average; virtually no other surpluses were reported.

Oklahoma's supply pattern follows the region but with a smaller surplus by 35% in vocational/industrial, 10% in special education and physical science, and 10% in music. (A 53% return of the Oklahoma random sample equals 27% of the state's district superintendents.) Surpluses parallel the regional average.

Tennessee superintendents (48% return of the random sample equals 24% of the state's superintendents) reported a 30% to 35% smaller shortage of mathematics, science, and vocational/industrial education teachers than the regional average. Correspondingly, superintendents also reported 10% to 20% greater surpluses in most certification areas.

Superintendents' opinions of how teacher training institutions ought to affect supply (increase, decrease, or remain the same) varied by state. Those

*Half the superintendents in each state were randomly selected for polling; therefore, percent of return divided by two equals the percent of all superintendents in the state who responded. The findings may or may not be highly representative of that state, depending upon the reader's sampling theory preferences.

For the sixth consecutive year, the number of college graduates majoring in education has declined.

About 190,000 prospective elementary and secondary school teachers were graduated in 1978, a decrease of almost 4% from 1977, according to an annual study by the National Education Association. The all-time high was 317,254 education graduates in 1972.

Results of the survey, released in early July, also showed that the number of graduates seeking teaching positions last year had exceeded the available jobs by 71,450.

In 1977 about 50% of the new teachers found jobs. Fifteen years earlier, that figure was almost 75%.

The study, which is based on information from teachers colleges and state education agencies and associations, indicated that more teachers might be needed in mathematics, natural and physical sciences, agriculture, and vocational education. There is an oversupply in the social sciences, physical education, art, and general elementary education.

The study found that the number of available teachers might be even greater than the figures from the survey indicate, since earlier graduates may still be looking for jobs.

The study predicted that the supply of teachers "will be more than adequate for the number of available teaching jobs" for at least the next four years. "There is scant evidence that immediate expansion is needed in the numbers of students preparing to enter teaching," it concluded.

— Beverly T. Watkins
July 9 *Chronicle of Higher Education*

states reporting the greatest shortages look to the colleges for more new teachers. In Missouri, for example, 46% of superintendents asked for increases in new teacher production. In Tennessee, on the other hand, none of the superintendents thought teacher preparatory programs should increase new teacher output. Regionally, 23% of all superintendents asked for increases in new teacher production; less than 10% asked for reductions.

It is clear that within the nine-state region supply is beginning to approach demand in many areas often thought to be in surplus. Superintendents do not regard the less-employable applicants who remain as a viable pool from which to staff the schools. But the superintendents — who are the real assessors of supply and demand — *do* ask that preparatory programs throughout the region increase their output of top-flight (and in most cases dually certified) new teachers. Of these, say superintendents, there is a critical shortage.

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1. Population growth has favored nonmetropolitan areas since 1970. See William S. Graybeal, *Population Trends and Their Implications for Association Planning, 1978* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1978), p. 5.
2. The need for and decline in numbers of multiply certified teachers is discussed in many sources. See, for example, James Akin, *Teacher Supply/Demand* (Madison, Wis.: Association for School, College, and University Staffing, 1979), p. 5; Parker L. Lawlis, *Surplus or Shortage: The Employment Outlook for Teachers in Illinois, 1979* (Normal, Ill.: Placement Service, Illinois State University, 1979), p. 1; *Kappan* articles: Richard Musemeche and Sam Adams, "The Coming Teacher Shortage" and Robert N. Herman, "Now Inevitable: A Substantial and Lengthy Teacher Shortage," June 1978, pp. 691-93.
3. Graybeal, op. cit., p. 12.
4. See fn. 2.
5. "Percent of 1976 Graduates Prepared to Teach Who Were Employed as Teachers on 1 November 1976, by State," Table 3, *NEA Research Report, July 1978* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1978).
6. "Number of Graduates Completing Preparation for Standard Teaching Certificate for the First Time, by Type of Preparation, Year and State," Table 1, *NEA Research Report, July 1978* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1978).
7. Graybeal, op. cit., p. 10. □

Collective Bargaining for School Administrators Four Years Later

by Bruce S. Cooper

The unionization of principals and other middle managers in education is a relatively new and growing phenomenon in labor relations. Has collective bargaining become more common in this part of the public sector? Is its influence likely to expand?

In 1975 I interviewed the heads of state school boards, principals, and teachers associations and members of labor relations agencies to determine the extent of middle-management bargaining in the nation. The results showed a sizable number of states with some bargaining activity among school middle management.* A recent replication of the 1975 survey shows that bargaining at this level is becoming much more popular and is taking new forms.

In the vast majority of cases, bargaining takes place with the support of state labor laws that enable groups of middle administrators to seek recognition and require school boards to negotiate with them. In 1975, 1,055 school districts operated under state legislation while 45 recognized and bargained with their administrators voluntarily, in the absence of enabling laws. By 1979, 1,727 enabled and 111 voluntarily recognized units were bargaining, a total of 1,838 and a 67% increase over the 1975 total of 1,100 (see Table 1).

State and Regional Differences. Since 1975, six new state legislatures have granted school supervisors the right to bargain, increasing the total number of states with such laws to 21. The District of Columbia continues to have voluntary recognition and no bargaining law; further, the number of states with similar voluntary recognition has remained constant at seven (Colorado and Idaho were added to the list and Virginia and Rhode Island removed).

Of the remaining 22 states that do not allow administrators to bargain, 15, located primarily in the South, Midwest, and Rocky Mountain regions, have no bargaining privileges for any of their public sector employees, though efforts have been made to pass enabling legislation. These states include Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wyoming. The remaining seven states (Delaware, Florida, Indiana, Iowa, Oregon, Rhode Island, and South Dakota) have no middle-management negotiations because state labor laws specifically exclude supervisory personnel from unionization. (See accompanying map.)

From a regional perspective, states in the Northeast have the greatest number of bargaining units and some of the largest middle-management unions in the country. New York City's Council of Supervisors and Administrators, for example, has about 3,800 members, a full-time executive staff of nine, and a yearly budget of nearly one million dollars.

The 12 states of the upper Midwest, stretching from North Dakota to Kansas to Ohio, are the second most active and include the highly unionized states of Michigan, Minnesota, and Illinois. In comparison to the Northeast, this region has far more diversity in its supervisory unionization. Michigan and Kansas, for example, are highly active and have state laws that permit recognition of supervisors, while North Dakota and Nebraska have permissive laws but few bargaining units. Ohio, Wisconsin, Missouri, and Illinois have no public sector labor laws but do have active voluntary bargaining. South Dakota, Iowa, and Indiana have no middle-management unionization at all. In sum, the Midwest has seen strong growth in middle-management unionization (a 128% increase, from 236 units in 1975 to 538 in 1979), though the area contains less than 30% of the nation's middle-management unions in education.

The remaining school supervisory bargaining groups are found in the Pacific region, Alaska and Hawaii, and a few scattered states. California has a new labor relations act in the public sector and three school supervisory unions; Washington State increased its number of unions from 55 in 1975 to 80 in 1979; Alaska went from six to 39; Hawaii remained with one unit, since the state has only one statewide school district; Tennessee emerged as unique in that it places middle managers and teachers in a common unit; and Montana, Nevada, and Oklahoma have bargaining units, but only a very few.

In summary, supervisory collective bargaining in education has grown 67% in four years, from 1,100 to 1,838 units. In all, 21 states have laws that allow administrator unionization and bargaining. Seven other states and the District of Columbia have local, voluntary recognition of bargaining units for school supervisors and no state enabling laws. Thus the 1975 total of states with bargaining unions has been eroded by three (Florida,* Rhode Island, and Virginia).

Other Trends. Other changes are evident in the last four years: 1) National organizations of school administrators have begun recognizing the bargaining needs of local organizations. In 1976, for example, the AFL-CIO recognized the nation's first middle-management union, the American Federation of School Administrators, which now represents middle

Table 1. States with Voluntary Or Enabled Bargaining for School Supervisors, 1975 and 1979

	1975 (Σ = 23)		1979 (Σ = 29)	
	Vol. (N = 8)	Enab. (N = 15)	Vol. (N = 8)	Enab. (N = 21)
1. Alas.	—	6	—	39
2. Calif.	—	0	—	3
3. Colo.	0	—	2	—
4. Conn.	—	132	—	161
5. D.C.	1	—	1	—
6. Fla.	—	4	—	0*
7. Hi.	—	1	—	1
8. Ida.	0	—	1	0
9. Ill.	6	—	11	—
10. Kan.	—	14	—	160
11. Me.	—	14	—	15
12. Md.	—	12	—	24
13. Mass.	—	100	—	240
14. Mich.	—	75	—	150
15. Minn.	—	110	—	122
16. Mo.	5	—	10	—
17. Mont.	—	0	—	1
18. Neb.	—	0	—	1
19. Nev.	—	0	—	1
20. N.H.	—	3	—	6
21. N.J.	—	310	—	420
22. N.Y.	—	215	—	222
23. N.D.	—	0	—	6
24. Oh.	25	—	66	—
25. Okla.	—	0	—	1
26. Penn.	5	—	8	—
27. R.I.	1	—	0*	—
28. Tenn.	—	0	—	68
29. Vt.	—	4	—	6
30. Va.	1	—	0*	—
31. Wash.	—	55	—	80
32. Wis.	1	—	12	—
TOTAL	45	1,055	111#	1,727†

Dashes indicate nonapplicable category.
*Indicates states where supervisors lost recognition as bargaining unit between 1975 and 1979.
#144% increase
†67% increase

*Bruce S. Cooper, "Collective Bargaining Comes to School Middle Management," *Phi Delta Kappan*, October 1975, pp. 202-04.

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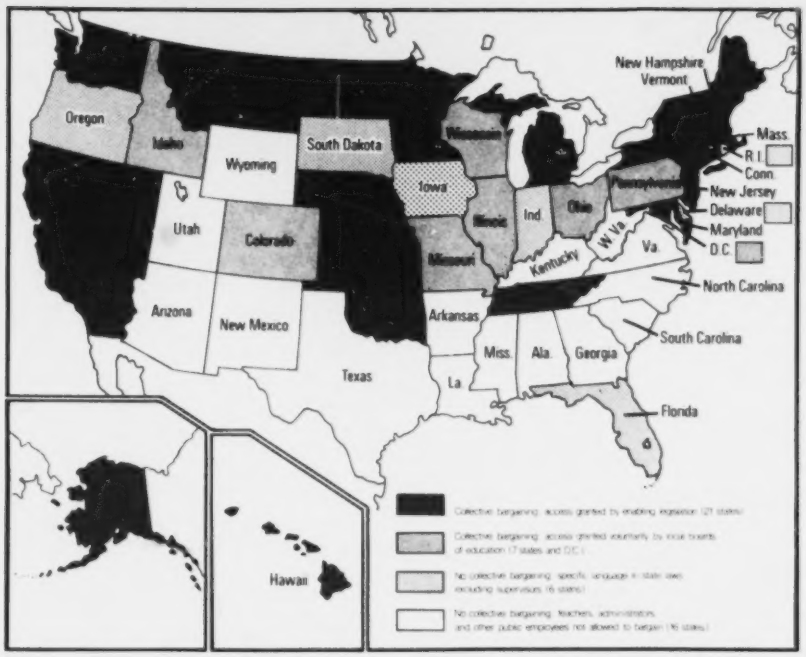
*Florida had a bargaining law for administrators in 1975 and 1976; it was revoked in 1977. See Table 1.



managers in many of the country's largest school systems. 2) State administrator organizations, too, have become more supportive of local bargaining. In one case, the Ohio elementary and secondary school principals' state associations created an "umbrella" organization, the Ohio Council of Administrative Personnel Associations, which lobbies the state legislature with a unified front. 3) Congress and various state legislatures are considering new labor relations laws that might affect education. In July 1979, H.B. 777 was still before the Congress; it would amend the National Labor Relations Act and extend bargaining rights to all public employees.

These developments and the 67% increase in administrator bargaining units suggest that this area of unionization is quickly becoming a force to be reckoned with. If the trends evident in the 1975-79 period are any index for the future, we shall see continued growth in both size and influence of middle-management unions. □

Opinions of Wisconsin Citizens About Educational Goals

by Francis B. Evans and Judson A. Harmon

What educational goals are viewed as important by the public, and on which of these goals should schools place additional emphasis? The Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction (DPI) sought answers to these questions when conducting a needs assessment study over the past two years. In general, the responses indicate that people consider a broad range of humanistic as well as skill-oriented goals important and worthy of additional emphasis in school.

Eighteen educational goal statements used in the survey were derived from a list of 11 general goals developed by an advisory citizens task force appointed by the superintendent of public instruction in 1972. Respondents listened to each of the 18 statements and indicated how important it was for students to accomplish that goal by the time they were graduated. They also judged how much emphasis the schools should give each goal.

Table 1 presents the goal statements and their rankings. It shows the percent of respondents who rated each goal as being of high or very high importance and the percent of respondents who thought the school emphasis on that goal should be more or much more.

The importance ratings and the emphasis ratings should be interpreted separately. The former show the relative importance of goals, regardless of whose responsibility it is to enact them. Emphasis ratings, on the other hand, can be interpreted as an indication of where the schools could focus additional effort in teaching, curriculum, counseling, extracurricular activities, etc. In other words, these are the outcomes to which the citizens believe the schools should pay more attention.

Table 1 reveals that all 18 goals were rated high or very high in importance; 17 of the 18 were endorsed in this manner by more than 75% of the respondents. The sampling design and the response rate of 75% gave an estimated sampling error of 3% to 5%. Because the ratings for all but the last few goals are close together, this margin of error means no one goal should be considered *much* more important than another, although it may be slightly higher in ranking.

It is notable that both goals relative to knowledge and skills and goals in the area of personal and social development received especially high importance ratings. This suggests that the people of Wisconsin are strong proponents of more than the simplistic "back to basics" goals, and that this strong support for such a variety of educational goals could be used by educators to counter any pressures to restrict the curriculum.

None of the goals referred specifically to the basic skills of reading, writing, and calculation. The authors assumed that nearly everyone would rate these basics highly. It might have been interesting to find out how the highly ranked goals would have compared with such "anchor" goals as adequate skills in reading, writing, and calculation.

The emphasis ratings need some explanation. The reason for asking how much emphasis schools should give to each goal was to help answer the question: "On which goals do people want us to try harder?" The responses provide a direct answer. The public typically did want some increased emphasis on nearly all of these goals; more than half of the respondents wanted more or much more school emphasis on 16 of the 18. As was the case with importance ratings, respondents gave high ranking for increased school emphasis to goals both in the area of knowledge and skills and in the area of personal and social development. This generalized support can be interpreted as an endorsement of both the humanistic and the cognitive goals of education.

Just what do high and low emphasis ratings mean? First, it is obvious from an inspection of the ranks of importance and emphasis that the two are highly related. So a high emphasis rating means much the same thing as high importance. In addition, a high emphasis rating probably means that the citizens feel the schools should try harder on these goals, or perhaps develop some new methods of achieving them.

A lower emphasis rating may mean that the goal is not important enough to put additional effort into it. Furthermore, some citizens may feel that a lower-rated goal is fairly important but that 1) it is not

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an area within the school's purview, or 2) the schools are doing a satisfactory job and additional emphasis is not necessary, or 3) additional emphasis is not likely to improve the situation.

It should be noted that a modest rating on emphasis doesn't necessarily mean that the schools should *deemphasize* a goal. The goal that received the lowest rating, "Enjoy and have some understanding of art, music, dance, literature, crafts. . . ," is a case in point. Thirty-nine percent of the respondents said the goal should have more or much more emphasis, 50% said emphasis should remain the same, and only 6% said the goal should receive less emphasis. For nearly all the other goals, considerably less than 6% of the respondents said the goal should receive less emphasis.

The goals survey was conducted by telephone during April and May of 1977 by the Wisconsin Survey Research Laboratory, University of Wisconsin Extension. Some 444 adult Wisconsin citizens, selected by a random-digit dialing method, completed the interview schedule. (Further information about the study may be obtained by writing the authors at the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 126 Langdon St., Madison, WI 53702, or by telephoning them at 608/266-1863.) □

Table 1. Opinions of Wisconsin Residents on Educational Goals: Relative Importance and Emphasis Ratings

EDUCATIONAL GOAL (Read: "High school graduates should —")	IMPORTANCE % Rating High or Very High	IMPORTANCE Rank	EMPHASIS % Rating More or Much More	EMPHASIS Rank
Be able to accept responsibility.	97	1	83	1
Understand basic economics well enough so they can successfully complete such everyday living tasks as buying, selling, banking, borrowing, and budgeting.	94	2½	78	2½
Enjoy our natural environment and want to protect it.	94	2½	71	7½
Have good mental and emotional health, that is, they should be reasonably happy and well adjusted.	93	4	69	10
Be able to think for themselves.	92	6½	78	2½
Be able to get along with others.	92	6½	71	7½
Understand local, state, and national government; know their own rights and duties; and desire to be responsible citizens.	92	6½	70	9
Understand and practice good physical health principles that are related to foods, exercise, cleanliness, and safety.	92	6½	64	13
Have high personal moral standards.	90	9	77	4
Understand and accept themselves.	89	10	72	5½
Be free from prejudices about other racial and ethnic groups.	88	11½	57	15
Understand the kinds of career opportunities in Wisconsin and how their own skills and interests are related to those opportunities.	88	11½	65	11½
Have some of the basic skills and knowledge necessary for being a spouse and a parent — for both male and female students.	84	13½	65	11½
Have some salable skills that will qualify them for immediate employment after graduation from high school.	84	13½	72	5½
Support and accept the principle of equal opportunity for both men and women in all types of jobs and social roles.	78	15	54	16
Want to continue learning after finishing their formal schooling.	78	16	60	14
Know about recent scientific advances and understand how our ways of living are affected by them.	76	17	48	17
Enjoy and have some understanding of art, music, dance, literature, crafts, and so forth that are part of our cultural heritage.	68	18	39	18

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What's Right with the Schools—HODGKINSON
The Nuclear Radiation/SAT Decline Connection—STERNGLASS
'A Study of Schooling'—First in a Four-Part Series—GOODLAD

PHI DELTA NOVEMBER 1979

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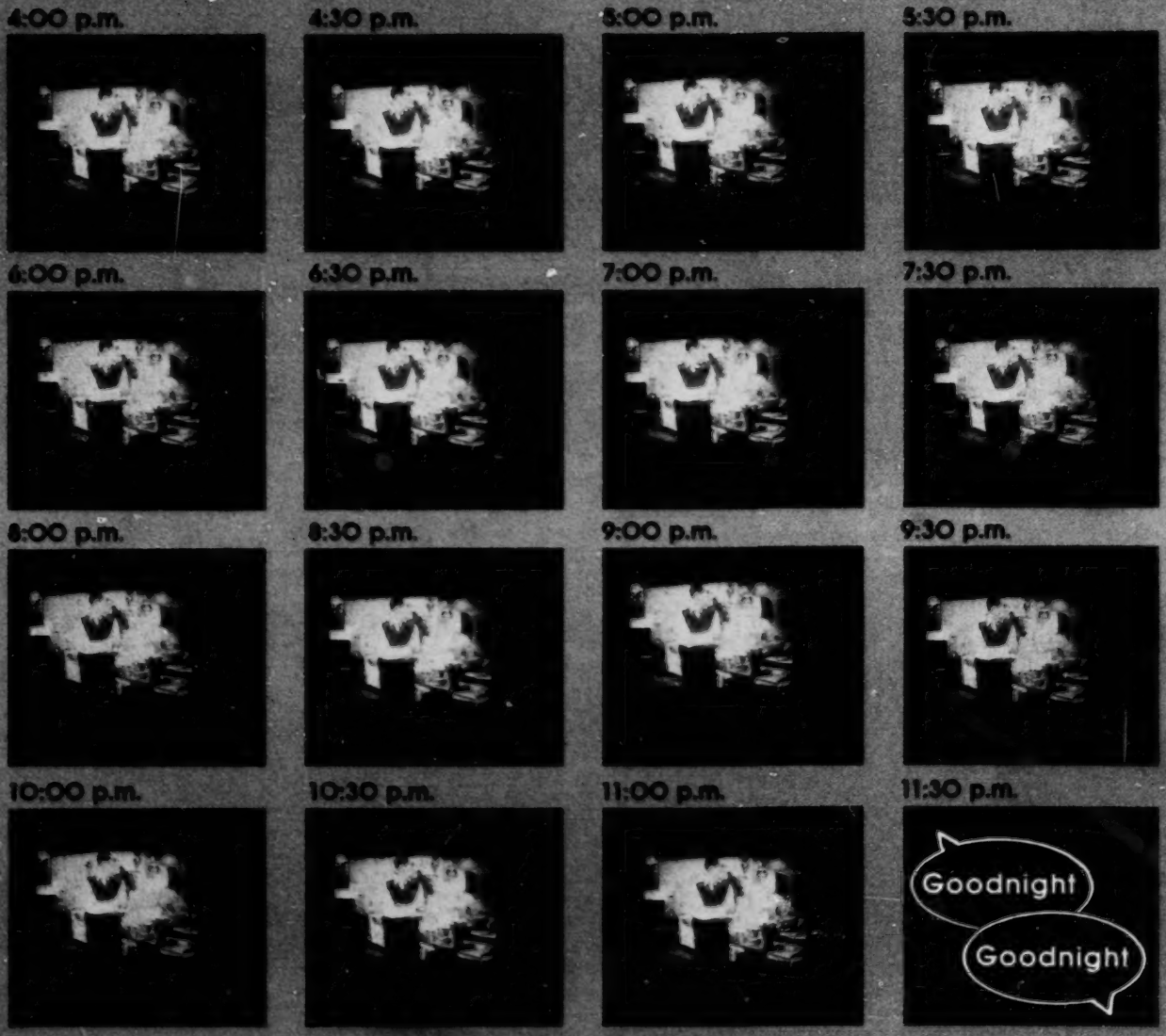

TV & the Schools

POSTMAN • PINES • WHALEY/ANTONELLI

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